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Topics of the Day.

WE see no particular fault to find with the President's third veto message, except that he rather gratuitously puts forth by implication the fallacy that the States whose loyalty compelled them to be the Union can now have no right to exercise the powers inherent in the completed Union. It cannot properly be objected to the message, that it is an exercise of the veto power in a case where no fundamental principle is concerned. Aside from the fact that fundamental principles of right are threatened when party expediency is suffered to work injustice to the nation at large, the President would certainly have been derelict if he had allowed for no perceptible good reason the admission of Colorado to all the heavy burdens and all the great privileges of a State, while her population is so insignificant in number and so very doubtfully desirous of discarding the territorial government. The message, with the exception of the last clause, is candid and dignified in tone, and there is hardly a doubt that it will be sustained in Congress.

JEFFERSON DAVIS has been indicted for acts of treason committed in Richmond in June, 1864, and, though the Chief-Justice seems to have hardly got over his hesitation, the trial will in all probability soon take place. As far as Davis himself is concerned, it will probably prove a farce. He is said to have received the news of his indictment with joy, which was probably caused one-third by the prospect of a change in his situation and two-thirds by confidence that he would be acquitted. We have no idea that Mr. Johnson expects or desires him to be punished. That holy horror of treason and traitors which shed a lurid light on the first fortnight of the President's administration died out long ago, and its place has been taken by a mild desire to have the possibility of committing any such crime as treason tested before a court, and to get rid of Davis somehow. There is probably just as little doubt in the public mind now as there was two years ago that Davis did commit treason, but the number of those who care whether he is punished for it or not has probably diminished one-half.

It will be very strange if we do not eventually get at the truth in the matter of the Memphis riot, concerning which some one who has kept account reckons that seven independent commissions, civil and military, local and national, black and white, have been ordered. Mr. Washburne, who serves on the House Committee of Investigation, was also, if we mistake not, a member of the one which enquired into the

Fort Pillow massacre—another beauty-spot on Western Tennessee. The case is not receiving a whit more attention than it deserves. Nothing can be more impressive not only to the guilty parties, but to that large population in the South whose hatred of the negro only lacks an opportunity to be converted into violence, than to see such an extraordinary "fuss" made over "niggers." When the idea is once fairly apprehended that the Government means protection for all classes of its citizens, there will be a very sensible diminution of colored persons killed, colored churches and colored school-houses burned, at the South. There can, in our minds, be no sounder policy for the Government than to treat every such occurrence as of extraordinary importance. Half of them are due to the prevailing Southern impression that they are insignificant.

THE "excentric" head-centre Stephens had his ovation at Jones's Wood on Tuesday. His speech was a review of the origin and progress of Fenianism, and of the circumstances of his call to be its authoritative leader. He had the frankness to acknowledge that he never had received much pecuniary aid from this country, in spite of the two or three visits he had made here and of the fine promises which he had reaped so abundantly on each occasion. He was even sincerely sorry that the stay-at-home Fenians had not trusted to their own resources entirely, and had ever looked to America for anything whatever. But he was of the opinion that if, while he was in prison—"the time of our greatest power in Ireland"—a small force, "or even a few superior officers, with the necessary war material," had been sent to Ireland, it would be an independent country to-day. Except this confident statement there was very little brag on the part of Mr. Stephens, and not much else in his remarks that was noticeable. We have before expressed our hope that Fenianism might really do something for Ireland by weakening the influence of the priesthood; and on this point Mr. Stephens was very explicit. He said that the Fenian oath had been devised "to make the people distinguish between the two-fold character of the priests and clergymen of all classes," and while owing them obedience and devotion in their spiritual character, "in their temporal character simply to look on them as citizens." "Without this training," he added, and we believe him, "you never could have a force in Ireland on which you could rely."

THE cholera makes no progress here, but on the Continent it is awakening from its torpor, and the same class of German emigrants who brought it to us are endangering England. The steamship *Helvetia*, from Liverpool for New York, put back just after leaving Queenstown, on account of the breaking out of the disease on board. The passengers have been put in strict quarantine, and it is reported that German immigration, *via* England, will be prohibited by Government.

It is an agreeable novelty to see in our city streets commodious drays loaded not as once with heaps of prostrate, agonized calves on their way to slaughter, but with the animals all standing and, as far as may be, enjoying themselves. The change, as every one knows, is due to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, whose very existence guarantees greater humanity in the transportation of stock as

well as in the everyday treatment of the horse. A few wholesome prosecutions answer for an advertisement, and the effect sought after ensues. We wish the society would abolish the first of May in behalf of man and beast alike, though we have noticed that the teamster is never so careful of his team as on moving-day, and that if he can possibly make five loads out of three he is sure to accomplish it.

We get from Richmond more important news than that Davis is to be tried there. One of the old Virginia dreams, that somewhere near the mouth of the James a great city was sure to spring up, at last seems not unlikely to be realized. It is not to be at Norfolk, however, but at Newport News. From that harbor to Cincinnati the distance is shorter by one hundred and ninety-three miles than from Cincinnati to Baltimore, and two hundred miles shorter than from Cincinnati to New York. Travel along this line is not affected by the inclemency of winter. Money has been provided by Northern capitalists, and within three years the Covington and Ohio Railroad is to be built, and the chain of communication completed by short links between Richmond and Lynchburg and Richmond and the coast. A French company has deposited \$3,000,000 with the State government as security for the completion of the James River and Kanawha Canal. Thus the new rival of New York is to be connected with the great West by the shortest railway and the best line of water communication; and Virginia, which under the old system literally manured the ground above her iron mines with rich plumbago ore, in order that tobacco might be cultivated by slave labor, under a new system may yet become the greatest of States.

COLORADO was named in the list of territories whose acts of organization have just been amended. As the latest step taken by Congress towards universal suffrage, and as a contrast with its previous action in regard to Colorado, a portion of the new bill will be read with interest. The ninth section provides that in none of the nine Territories shall there be denial of the elective franchise to any citizen because of his race or color. Mr. Le Blond, of Ohio, did not believe that Congress had any power to interfere with the rights of suffrage of the citizens in the Territories, but the bill passed by a vote of 79 to 43, many Unionists not being present when the vote was taken.

THE general impression in Europe, in the first week of this month, was that war was imminent. The Prussian Government had issued a circular despatch to its foreign representatives, explaining that the negotiations on the question of disarmament had led to no result, on account of Austria's warlike preparations in Venetia, and casting upon that empire the full responsibility for whatever might ensue. Accordingly, Prussia was making great preparations in the districts adjoining Saxony, threatening, as it seemed, an advance into that kingdom; and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was daily looked for. The Austrian armaments, in Venetia, Bohemia, Moravia, and Western Galicia, were equally pushed forward with great vigor. According to a telegram from Prague, all portable church property, as well as the valuables of the ex-Emperor Ferdinand, had been removed from that city to Vienna. Great excitement prevailed in Venetia; the proclamation of a state of siege in that province was expected. Gen. Benedek was regarded as the future Austrian commander-in-chief. The Italian Government had concluded a new loan of 250,000,000 lire with the National Bank of Italy. The war fever ran high throughout the peninsula. Still, both the Italian and Austrian Governments continued to make public assurances of their determination to abstain from aggressive movements. To this course the French minister, Rouher, declared Italy to be pledged, upon persuasion of the French cabinet. The same statesman summed up, in the Corps Législatif, the intentions of his own Government in the following "three words: a pacific policy; loyal neutrality; complete liberty of action." M. Thiers, in a long speech, attacked this policy as too lenient towards Italy, in which Jules Favre disagreed with him. The Paris Bourse was agitated by a kind of panic. There was some talk of a European congress, as well as of mediations by England and Russia, but without a reassuring effect.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 16, 1866.

THE veto message of the President (number three) rejecting the bill for the admission of Colorado is received with the greatest equanimity by Congress. There is a highly influential minority of the Republicans opposed to any admission of these petty Territories on grounds of principle. And the few thorough-paced partisans who desired the admission of Colorado to make votes in the Senate, are estopped from defending it on that ground by the already overwhelming majority, to say nothing of higher considerations.

The House makes steady progress with the tax bill, and will leave the reconstruction issues to the Senate for a fortnight to come.

The decision of the Senate, after a week's strenuous argument, to leave the quarantine arrangements of the States against the cholera undisturbed, merely authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to use the national authority to act "in aid of State or municipal regulations," was a surrender of the champions of high Federal powers which was unlooked for.

DIARY.

May 14.—In the Senate, the bill to prevent smuggling was discussed and amended.

In the House, the Judiciary Committee were instructed to report on the expediency of abrogating the laws making the tenure of office dependent on the appointing power. A select committee of three was appointed—yeas, 87; nays, 22—to investigate the late riots at Memphis (Tenn.), and report the facts to the House. Mr. Chanler, of N. Y., offered a resolution lauding the President for defending the country by his veto power "against the wicked and revolutionary acts of a few malignant and mischievous men." The House refused to consider the resolution—yeas, 19; nays, 84. Mr. Schenck offered a resolution of censure upon Mr. Chanler for offering a gross insult to the House. Adopted—yeas, 72; nays, 30. The internal tax bill was debated and amended.

May 15.—In the Senate, a bill to authorize an additional assistant secretary of the navy was passed. Also, a bill fixing the time and place for holding the U. S. Circuit Court for the Virginia district, at Richmond, in May and November. The House joint resolution to prevent the introduction of cholera was amended and passed—yeas, 27; nays, 12. A message was received from the President returning, with objections, the bill for the admission of Colorado to the Union. A bill to prevent smuggling was passed.

In the House, the bills of the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, to declare certain persons ineligible to office, and to restore States late in insurrection to full political rights, were postponed two weeks. A bill to amend the organic acts under which the Territories of the U. S. are organized was passed, the House refusing—yeas, 36; nays, 75—to strike out a section prohibiting any denial of the elective franchise on the ground of color. The tax bill was further debated and amended.

THE FREEDMEN.

FREEDMEN'S schools are in successful operation in fifteen large cities of Alabama, and in them more than 10,500 pupils are taught. In some of the white churches colored children are taught under the superintendency of the pastors. At Demopolis the citizens have contributed of their funds to aid in the erection of a school-house for colored people. At Tuskegee the mayor of the city has charge of a large colored Sunday-school.

The Georgia school reports for the month of April give 71 schools, 103 teachers, and 6,991 pupils; showing an increase, since January, of 9 schools, 15 teachers, and 422 pupils. From the 1st to the 30th of April the attendance in Macon increased 314, and in Columbus 307; while in Savannah it ran down from 1,759 in March to 1,369 in April. The schools are in thirty-two different localities—36 of them with 61 teachers and 4,969 pupils being in the cities of Savannah, Augusta, Atlanta, Macon, and Columbus. In nine places, during the month, the freed people paid \$498 to the cause of education, \$213 of which were paid in support of private schools in Augusta. About twenty-five schools are supported exclusively by the freed people and the others by Northern societies. All are doing well, and many of them are of the highest order, both in progress and discipline.

—The March returns of the health of the freedmen show a slight increase of sickness over the preceding month, but a smaller percentage of deaths. Virginia and the Carolinas are very sickly at present, and small-pox particularly is gaining ground. This disease is noted as being rare in the Gulf States. There were treated in February 318 refugees; in March, 534. The deaths among them are much fewer in proportion to those treated than among the freedmen.

Notes.

LITERARY.

MATTHEW ARNOLD has lately published three papers on "The Study of Celtic Literature" which are among the best things that he has written, being excellent specimens of intelligent and judicial criticism, and containing, in small space, a deal of curious and interesting matter. As regards Celtic literature, he occupies a middle ground, avoiding the mistaken enthusiasm of those who find all the traditions of past ages therein, chief among whom must be reckoned the Rev. Edward Davies, the author of "The Mythology and Rites of the British Druids," and the over-critical scepticism of those who find it little but a mass of imaginative rubbish of a comparatively recent date. Speaking of one department of Celtic literature, that of the Welsh, he states, on the authority of one who is no friend to its high pretensions, that "the Myvyrian manuscripts alone, now deposited in the British Museum, amount to forty-seven volumes of poetry, of various sizes, containing about 4,700 pieces of poetry, in 16,000 pages, besides about 2,000 englynion or epigrammatic stanzas. There are also in the same collection fifty-three volumes of prose, or about 15,300 pages, containing a great many curious documents on various subjects. Besides these, which were purchased of the widow of the celebrated Owen Jones, the editor of the 'Myvyrian Archaeology,' there are a vast number of collections of Welsh manuscripts in London and in the libraries of the gentry of the principalities." Mr. Arnold pays a few words of tribute to the memory of Owen Jones, a Denbighshire peasant, who went up to London a young man of nineteen, and worked as a furrier there for forty years, the chief aim of his life being to collect and give publicity to his country's literature—an object which he accomplished at the commencement of the present century by the publication of his "Myvyrian Archaeology"—a noble work, with all its imperfections. The stock of Irish literature, printed and unprinted, is, if anything, larger than that of Welsh, and the work of cataloguing and describing it has been admirably performed, Mr. Arnold says, by Mr. Eugene O'Curry, a remarkable man, who died the other day. An idea of its extent may be gathered from his lectures, which were delivered at the Catholic University in Dublin, and in which he states that the great vellum manuscript books belonging to Trinity College, Dublin, and the Royal Irish Academy, have between them matter enough to fill 11,400 closely printed quarto pages; that other vellum manuscripts in the library of Trinity College have matter enough to fill 8,200 pages more; and that the paper manuscripts of Trinity College and the Royal Irish Academy together would fill 30,000 such pages more. Mr. Arnold gives the names of some of these works, as the "Book of the Dun Cow," the "Book of Leinster," the "Book of Ballymote," the "Speckled Book," the "Book of Lecain," the "Yellow Book of Lecain," the "Féilíre of Angus the Culdee," and the "Annals of the Four Masters," which last gives "the years of foundations and destructions of churches and castles, the obituaries of remarkable persons, the inaugurations of kings, the battles of chiefs, the contests of clans, the ages of bards, abbots, bishops, etc." O'Curry relates a story of the effect produced on Moore, the poet, who had undertaken to write a history of Ireland (a task for which, as Mr. Arnold justly observes, he was unfit), by the contemplation of an old Irish manuscript. "In the year 1839," says O'Curry, "during one of his last visits to the land of his birth, he, in company with his old and attached friend Dr. Petrie, favored me with an unexpected visit at the Royal Irish Academy. I was at that period employed on the 'Ordnance Survey of Ireland,' and at the time of his visit happened to have before me on my desk the 'Books of Ballymote and Lecain,' the 'Speckled Book,' the 'Annals of the Four Masters,' and many other ancient books, for historical research and reference. I had never before seen Moore, and after a brief introduction and explanation of the nature of my occupation by Dr. Petrie, and seeing the formidable array of so many dark and time-worn volumes by which I was surrounded, he looked a little disconcerted, but after a while picked up courage to open the 'Book of Ballymote' and ask what it was. Dr. Petrie and myself then entered into a short explanation of the history and character of the books then present as well as of ancient Gaelic documents in general. Moore listened with great attention, alternately scanning the books and myself, and then asked me, in a serious tone, if I understood them, and how I had learned to do so. Having satisfied him on these points, he turned to Dr. Petrie and said: 'Petrie, these huge tomes could not have been written by fools or for any foolish purpose. I never knew anything about them before, and I had no right to have undertaken the 'History of Ireland.' And from that day, adds Mr. Arnold, Moore, it is said, lost all heart for going on with his "History of Ireland," and it was this opportunity of the publishers which induced him to bring out the

remaining volume. Mr. Arnold enters upon the question of the antiquity of the most noted specimens of Welsh literature, which are claimed to have been the product of the sixth century, but which their ablest disparager, Nash, would put down some six centuries later, and argues for the former date, giving some pretty conclusive reasons for so doing. He quotes in support of his position the singular tale of "Killweh and Olwen," from Lady Guest's translation of the "Mabinogion," almost every page of which, he thinks, points to traditions and personages of the most remote antiquity. "The very first thing that strikes one," he remarks, "in reading the 'Mabinogion,' is how evidently the mediæval story-teller is pillaging an antiquity of which he does not fully possess the secret; he is like a peasant building his hut on the site of Halicarnassus or Ephesus; he builds, but what he builds is full of materials of which he knows not the history, or knows by a glimmering tradition merely; stones 'not of this building,' but of an older architecture, greater, cunninger, more majestic. In the mediæval stories of no Latin or Teutonic people does this strike one as in those of the Welsh."

—M. Feuillet de Conches has addressed a note to the editor of the "Athenæum" in reference to the letters of Marie Antoinette, which were published last year by M. d'Hunolstein, to whom he was said to have sold the forged manuscripts, and the charges brought against him by the *Allgemeine Zeitung* in connection therewith, and with some forged letters of Racine, the substance of which we gave a week or two since. M. Feuillet contradicts the statement of the German paper: from the first paragraph to the last there is not one word of truth in it. As regards the letters of Marie Antoinette, he knew nothing of them until they were published. The history of the Racine letters is a pure invention. The story of the blank leaves said to be missing from autographs of the last century, in the Imperial Library, the abstraction of which is laid to his door, he declares to be another invention; he not only never consulted any documents of that period, his researches extending only in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but the documents in question were never mutilated. Nor was there ever anything like a reclamation made, either against himself or anybody else, as is proved by the official communication of the Minister of the Interior. What his anonymous German accuser will say to all this remains to be seen. For the letters of Marie Antoinette, which lie at the bottom of this controversy, M. Louis Blanc, who ought to be a good judge of the matter, affirms that he is not surprised that their authenticity is questioned, and that he feels bound to say that, after having paid due attention to the controversy to which they have given rise, he is most decidedly under the impression that they are *not* genuine.

—It is well enough, perhaps, to keep a diary, if one is so inclined (Dr. Johnson, indeed, recommends the practice), but not many diaries will bear reading a few years after they are written, and not one in five hundred, no matter who the writers of them may be, will bear printing. Take the diary of Byron, for instance—it is little but a careless jotting down of his crude reflections on the men he met and the books he skimmed, the whole abounding, as some one has said, with the strong expletives with which draymen favor their horses. We learn from Moore's diary that he frittered away his time at breakfasts and evening parties; that he took ices at Tortoni's; and that, once in a while, "dear Bessie" was remembered. The diaries of statesmen ought to be better, one would think, keeping in mind the superior gravity of their occupations, but they are not—being, if anything, more trifling and jejune. One of these mistaken performances, "The Diary of the Right Hon. W. Windham," has lately been published; why, it is not easy to say, since it contains so little that is interesting. Windham was a noted man in his day, a speaker in Parliament, a cabinet minister, and what not besides; his contemporaries christened him "the finest gentleman of the age, the ingenious, the chivalrous, the high-souled Windham;" and Pitt declared his speeches to be the "finest productions possible of warm imagination and fancy." Windham, however, had a much less exalted opinion of himself, for mentioning one of his speeches, which was considered a capital performance, he adds: "There is not a speech of mine which in comparison of one of Francis's would, either for language or matter, bear examination for one moment; yet about my performances in that way a great fuss is made, while of his nobody speaks a word." Windham's diary is crowded with the names of celebrated persons, about whom, however, he tells us nothing, tantalizing us by such mentions as, "Dined with Sheridan; present Fox, Parr, Grey, Lord Grenville, etc." Burke's rejection of the friendship of Fox is entered thus: "Committee. Fatal day of rupture with Burke! I had gone down earlier in consequence of note from Wilberforce, and did not return home from the Committee, but got some soup with Francis at the Spring Garden Coffee House. It was latish before the House broke up." Burke at one time is "peevish and impatient," at another he makes an

"intemperate attack" on Windham for some trifling difference of opinion. Windham admired and respected Burke, however, especially after the publication of his "Reflections on the French Revolution," of which he wrote, "One would think that the author of such a work would be called to the government of his country by the combined voice of every man in it. What shall be said of this state of things when it is remembered that the writer is a man decried, persecuted, and proscribed; not being much valued even by his own party, and by half the nation considered as little better than an ingenious madman?" An odd trait in Windham's character was his love for what is rather dubiously called "the manly art," his diary containing references to fourteen or fifteen different prize-fights. On one occasion he left before the last battle was over to be in time for the House; on another he goes to see Cribb fight Gregson, and returns to town not to practice with his master, as Byron would have done, nor to lose his money at cards, as Fox would have done, but—to commence a treatise on Negative Signs! Windham was reverently attached to Dr. Johnson, of whom we have but a glimpse in his diary, as Johnson died in the year in which it was begun. He visited Johnson on his death-bed, and tried to persuade him to take some sustenance. "I then said I hoped he would forgive my earnestness, or something to that effect; when he replied eagerly, that 'from me nothing would be necessary by way of apology,' adding with great fervor, in words which I shall (I hope) never forget, 'God bless you, my dear Windham, through Jesus Christ,' and concluding with a wish that we might meet in some humble portion of that happiness which God might finally vouchsafe to repentant sinners. These were the last words I ever heard him speak. I hurried out of the room with tears in my eyes." This passage, and a brief account of his interview with Burke two days before the death of the latter, are by far the best things in Windham's rambling and meagre diary.

—The study of Sanskrit, which is on the increase in England, has not resulted there in as many poetical translations from that language as might have been expected, the most notable so far being Horace Hayman Wilson's "Cloud-Messenger" of *Kalidasa*, his collection of Hindu dramas, Monier Williams's version of *Kalidasa's* "Sakuntala" (with the metrical parts rendered into English verse), and Dean Milman's translation of the episode of Nala and Damayanti in the "*Mahābhārata*," the substance of which was woven into a unique story by an American writer, and published in one of the early volumes of "Putnam's Magazine." To this scanty store of translations may now be added a volume of "Idyls from the Sanskrit," by Ralph T. H. Griffith, principal of the Sanskrit College, Benares, the aforesaid idyls being translations of passages from each of the great Sanskrit epics, the "*Rāmāyana*," the "*Mahābhārata*," the "*Raghuvansa*," the "*Kumāra-Sambhava*," and the "*Ritu-sanhāra*." Faithful to the spirit of Sanskrit poetry, which in the main is long drawn and wearisome, Mr. Griffith's translations will not be found attractive by the general reader, although not without value to the lovers of curious lore. The best thing in his volume—a description of the rainy season in Hindustan—is almost perfect of its kind, being as dainty a lyric, in the Elizabethan sense, as one could wish.

SCIENTIFIC.

ANIMAL GRAFTS.—The possibility of engrafting one part of a living animal on another portion of the same animal, has long been recognized as a physiological fact, and underlies the whole practice of "plastic surgery." A lost nose or an unsightly opening in the face may be, in a great degree, remedied, at least as far as appearances go, by such an operation. But in these cases the old connections are not wholly destroyed until the new ones are established. The skin out of which the substitute for a nose is made is allowed to retain an attachment to, and derive nourishment from, the forehead until it forms a union with the parts with which it has been newly brought in contact, and only then its old connections, becoming unnecessary, are divided. Completely severed fingers sometimes unite when carefully brought together, and teeth which have been knocked wholly out will re-unite with their sockets when replaced. Individual tissues, as parts of a muscle, nerve, etc., have been from time to time transferred from one animal to another, where they have formed an organic union and lived.

The recent experiments of Bert in grafting, more than eighty in number, and for which he has received a prize from the Academy of Sciences in Paris, are the most complete hitherto recorded, and some of his results show a greater persistence of life in separated parts than had been previously supposed possible. They consisted chiefly in transplanting the tail, or other parts, of one animal into or beneath the skin, or into the cavity of the abdomen, of the same or of another animal. The following will serve to illustrate the nature as well as some of the results of Bert's observations. The tail of a rat was cut off, a portion of its end was deprived of its skin,

and then inserted into an opening on the back and secured in place; a complete adhesion of the parts followed, and the tail was sufficiently nourished in its new position. In another case a piece of tail 2.5 centimetres long, from which the skin had been removed, was inserted under the skin of another rat, so as to be completely covered in; the wound soon healed. Two months afterwards, by manipulating through the skin, one of the vertebrae of the transplanted part was fractured; about three months from the beginning of the experiment the rat was killed, and the fragment of tail had not only formed an organic union with the surrounding parts, but had grown from 2.5 to 9 centimetres in length, and the fractured portions had united, showing that its life was fully maintained. In like manner, the foot of one rat, from which the skin had been removed, was inserted under the skin of another, where it formed a union and increased considerably in size.

The following experiment has an important bearing on the physiology of nerves, since it adds another fact in evidence that nerves are more indifferent as conductors than has generally been supposed. The prevailing view has been that sensitive nerves only conduct impressions inwards to the nervous centres, and motor nerves from the centres outwards. The curious experiment of Vulpian, though as yet it has not been often repeated, tends to show that this is not true. He divided the motor and sensitive nerves of the tongue, and, crossing them, united the ends of the first with those of the second. After the union was complete he was able to excite muscular contractions by stimulating the sensitive nerve, which readily transmitted impressions made upon it to the motor nerve. It will be seen that in this case the sensitive nerve acted in a direction opposite to that in which it ordinarily acts. Bert engrafted the tip of a cat's tail into her back, and, after the union was completed, severed it at its base, so that it then hung from its tip and received its nourishment in a direction the reverse of the natural one. The sensibility of the tail was at first destroyed, but at length returned after a union had been formed between its nerves and those of the body. When it was pinched she defended herself in the usual way. Here, too, the nerve transmitted its impressions in a direction the reverse of the natural one, the tail having been turned end for end.

The time for which a part may retain its vitality after being separated from the body was also investigated, and, if Bert's observations are to be trusted, is much longer than has been supposed hitherto. Two young rats had each a piece of its own tail four centimetres long, and an equal piece of the tail of another and adult rat, engrafted into its body, after the parts had been detached from their living connections for twenty-four hours; during this interval the parts were kept in a glass tube inverted over water. They formed a union in their new places, and the immature tails increased in size. Successful grafts were made in other cases after the separation had lasted in one instance for twenty-six hours, in another three days, and in another eight days, the respective tails being enclosed during these periods in tightly corked tubes, and kept at a moderate temperature. He has shown by a series of experiments that the maintenance of a steady and moderate temperature during the period of separation is important. In parts kept at a temperature of from 50° to 54° F. the vitality persisted for several days; at 68° for seventeen hours; and at 86° only seven hours and a half. That the parts had fairly formed a living connection in the above instances was shown not only by their adhesions, but by the aid of injections, which proved that the blood vessels of the body and the graft communicated with each other.

Bert has not been successful in engrafting parts of a given animal on to another of a different genus.

CONCERNING THE PRESERVATION OF EGGS.—In one of the French agricultural journals M. Bournouf brings forward a method of keeping eggs which would appear to be a reduction to its lowest terms of the system of preservation based on the exclusion of air by means of varnishes. A host of empirical methods based upon this general idea have been from time to time devised. Among them, one of the more recent is the application of a coating of silicate of soda, thus: the eggs are placed in an aqueous solution of the silicate (water-glass) maintained at a temperature of about 85°, are pressed down beneath the surface of the heavy liquor, and kept immersed there during some ten or twelve minutes. On removing the eggs and allowing them to dry in the air, they become covered with an air-tight coating of the soluble glass, and, as is asserted, may now be preserved for almost any length of time—best, no doubt, in air-tight and dry boxes.

Bournouf's process is more refined than this. He prepares a pomade by dissolving one part of bees-wax in two parts of warm sweet oil, and smears this unguent over the egg until the shell has been completely covered with a thin layer of it. By degrees the egg will absorb the oil, and each of the pores of the shell will thus become filled with wax, so that the contents of the egg will at length be completely shut off from contact with the air. M. Bournouf affirms that he has himself eaten eggs which had been kept in

this manner for two years in a place exposed to no wide variations of temperature. He is even of opinion that eggs kept in this way for a very long time are still susceptible of being hatched.

FUSIBILITY OF SILICA.—Two distinct modifications of silica are known to chemists. As it occurs in the first of these modifications, the silica is readily soluble in alkaline leys and in hydrofluoric acid; while it dissolves with comparative difficulty when in the second modification. To the first or amorphous modification belong the minerals opal and hyalite, also the infusorial earths, such as the well-known "tripoli" or polishing powder. The specific gravity of the silica of this modification varies between 2.2 and 2.3. The second modification, the specific gravity of which is equal to about 2.6, and which is often found in nature in the form of crystals, includes quartz, rock crystal, and amethyst, as well as silicious sand, and the sandstones which have been formed by the agglomeration of particles of the latter. As an appendix to this second class a third list is often made out of the semi-crystalline varieties of silica, viz., chalcedony, chrysoprase, flint, and hornstone.

It has long been known to manufacturers of crucibles, fire-brick, and the chemical compounds of silicic acid, that the quality of the sand employed in their mixtures may exert a marked influence upon the fusibility of these mixtures or upon that of the products obtained from them. The sand of certain localities has thus come to be sought for by one class of manufacturers who desire to melt their materials readily, or with the least possible expenditure of fuel; while the same sand is held in no repute by those who aim to produce highly infusible products.

Some light has been thrown upon this point by the experiments of Bischoff, a German chemist, though his results do not go to corroborate so fully as might have been anticipated the old division of silica into two modifications. Samples of each of the common varieties of silica having been ground to impalpable powder in agate mortars, this powder was boiled with muriatic acid in order to remove any trace of impurity, and was afterwards rinsed with water. The moist powder was then moulded into little cylinders or prisms, which, after having been placed in crucibles of the most refractory fire-clay obtainable, were exposed to a degree of heat superior to that at which cast-steel melts. From the results of these trials it appeared that flint and rock crystal are the most difficultly fusible of all the varieties of silica. The external surfaces of the test cylinders composed of these minerals were glassy after the ignition; but, on breaking the cylinders, their fractured surfaces exhibited nothing vitreous, but only a granular structure. In the case of opal, vitreous spots were noticed upon the fractured surfaces. After opal, as regards refractoriness, followed amethyst, chalcedony, hornstone, hyalite, crystallized quartz, and milky quartz, all of which exhibited a fracture more vitreous than granular. Least difficultly fusible of all was the infusorial earth.

Mixtures of amorphous silica and alumina or clay were found to be less difficultly fusible than pure silica. Mixtures of crystallized silica with fire-clay are also, it is true, somewhat less difficultly fusible than the pure silica; but they are decidedly more refractory than the mixtures which contain amorphous silica. It will perhaps be found that while the amorphous silica may act as a flux and lessen the refractoriness of the clay, the crystallized silica may, on the contrary, increase its power of resisting heat.

The predilections of manufacturers for the silica of special localities now admit of explanation. It is by no means a matter of indifference to the manufacturer of refractory wares, which are intended to withstand intense heat, what kind of silica shall be mixed with the clay. If, for example, there were to be used the amorphous infusorial earth, no such refractory product would result as could be obtained by employing crushed flints or clean quartz sand. For the manufacturer of silicate of soda, on the contrary, this same infusorial earth would be far more valuable than the crystalline sand.

PROFESSOR SILLIMAN'S MEMOIRS.*

A FEW men only may be pronounced fortunate in all the circumstances of their lives. Fewer still are happy in the time and accompaniments of their death. Perhaps fewer than either of these classes, whose lot it is to have their lives written, are altogether happy in their biographers. The late Professor Silliman seems to have been fortunate in all these particulars. His life was a continued course of sunshine, the brightness of his mid-day

answering to the brilliant promise of the morning, and passing by gentle transitions into the serene and softened glow of a cloudless sunset. His death was a veritable *euthanasia*, quiet, peaceful, sudden—a literal breathing away of the spirit in love to man and in praise to God. His biography is modestly and judiciously edited, the story of his life being told in wise and skilfully adjusted selections from his own personal reminiscences, his copious journals, and his extended correspondence. The taste and good judgment of Prof. Fisher can only be fully appreciated by those who know how much he was obliged to omit from the plethoric abundance of material, and how delicate was the task of drawing the line between the too much and the too little. Still, even those who know little upon these points will, we think, be satisfied in the main that the book is one of the best specimens of a biography of the kind which has been prepared in this country. It gives proper prominence to the central figure—the man himself in the exhibition of his personal characteristics. A stranger to the person of Professor Silliman would gain from his journal and letters, as here given, a vivid and correct impression of him. His public and professional career is exhibited with greater prominence than is usual, but with no excess in the case of one who was so distinguished as a professor and public lecturer. To say less of him in these relations might have been suitable in the case of almost any other university man, but would have been out of keeping in his. To dwell so minutely upon the beginnings and the progress in this country of the sciences which he taught, would have been surplusage in the life of any other single American than the one whose personal career was a succession of plans and enterprises for the introduction and the growth, for the defense and the adornment, of those sciences. His very person was associated in the minds of his friends and the public with the branches of knowledge for which his brain, his pen, his tongue, and his purse were brought into constant requisition. The details of his personal feelings, the minute and frequent references to his family life, the copious selections from his own letters and from those of his friends, are all appropriate in the life of one who interested himself so warmly in the affairs of his fellow-men, and who confidently believed that they were equally interested in everything that concerned himself.

This biography will excite very general interest and be esteemed of permanent value because, also, it presents a continuous picture of the general history and progress of the country from the beginning of the present century, as this history and progress were reflected in the mind of an unusually public-spirited yet charitable and truth-loving man. His predilections or prejudices, if he had any, were all in favor of truth and goodness and order. He represented in his own person some of the most important public interests. He was connected with an institution to which young men resorted in great numbers who represented the wealth, the culture, and the opinions of every part of the country. His acquaintance with distinguished men in every department of public and professional life and holding every form of political and religious opinion, was very extensive. To read his life is to review the political and scientific, the religious and social, history of the country for the last half century.

The book also contains very many sketches of distinguished persons, from the pen of Professor Silliman. To describe the men whom he had honored in his youth and with whom he had associated in his mature years was a passion with him. These descriptions were a chief attraction of the first series of his travels, for they brought distinctly before the mind of the American people the personal appearance and manners of many distinguished men whose names were familiar. In the record which he made of his earlier life he regarded it as a duty and a pleasure to give minute and extended notices of all those persons who were familiarly known by himself, that the impressions on which he dwelt with so fond an interest might be preserved for others. In his letters he dwells with a peculiar satisfaction upon the appearance and manners of those persons whom he met in society. His fondness for detail and his patience in, or rather his passion for, composition contributed greatly to the fulness and the number of these descriptive sketches. This life is not merely a picture of the times in which Professor Silliman lived; it is also a portrait gallery of a great number of the men with whom he associated.

But the chief interest of the book pertains to the character of the central figure, the professor himself. We almost see the inner life of the man, so transparent are all the revelations which are made of the motives and aims of his being. We mark the steady and harmonious development of this life from the first frank revelation which he makes of his aims and aspirations to the last record which he enters upon his journal. The beauty of his face, the stateliness of his person, the elegance of his bearing, the ease of his manners, the fluency of his speech, the copiousness of his rhetoric, the readiness of his compliments, are all brought distinctly before us. We

* "Life of Benjamin Silliman, M.D., LL.D., late Professor of Chemistry, Mineralogy, and Geology in Yale College. Chiefly from his Manuscript Reminiscences, Diaries, and Correspondence. By George P. Fisher, Professor in Yale College." In two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner & Co., 124 Grand Street. 1866.

see that his intellect must have been quick to apprehend, curious to acquire, and ready to recall. His power of work was astonishing. His mind moved so easily that to read and write for many hours seemed to bring little exhaustion. He would converse with little excitement to himself, but always with sustained and cheerful animation. He would discourse often eloquently, always fluently, upon a great variety of topics, passing rapidly from one to another, never abating his freshness to the end. His sympathy with men was wide in its range, embracing all classes, requiring moral worth as the sole condition. To the high in social position he rendered a most courteous and willing deference. To the lowly and humble he was always friendly and sympathizing. He never forgot an old friend who had not forfeited every claim to his regard, and even those who had cut themselves off from his intercourse were remembered by him with some word of pity. Even chance acquaintances who had rendered him only a casual service were remembered and often spoken of with regard. The readiness and breadth of his sympathies explain his very general popularity. A genuine benevolence, founded upon fixed and strong moral convictions, sustained and regulated this plastic and pliant nature. An earnest religious faith, with devout habits of life, gave to his moral principles fervor and earnestness. In his family he was in early life the devoted husband and fond father; in middle life, the wise and sympathizing friend; in old age, the benignant and beloved patriarch. Among his neighbors he was most attentive, kind, and courteous. In the community he was respected as one ever ready to promote the public interests by his generous public spirit, and was pointed out with pride as the man whose name was an honor to the city in which he lived and died. The very house in which he lived was, like himself, plain, hospitable, yet full of the memorials of his friends and of the tokens of public esteem. The college with which he was connected for sixty years was regarded by him with fondness and pride. He knew that he had done much for its prosperity, and yet he felt for its honor and success an interest which never abated. It was associated in his mind with the highest of public interests, the cause of learning and of religion, and in his heart with the revered President Dwight, who had marked out his career and had foreseen his fame, and with the associates of his youth and the companions of his old age, the classical and critical Kingsley, who died before him, and the sagacious and clear-minded Day, who lingers behind. The thousands of pupils in whose memories of Yale College Professor Silliman presents himself so prominently, all regard him as the instructor and friend who kindled their enthusiasm for the brilliant and useful sciences which he taught, and who at the same time won their hearts to himself by his courtesy and kindness. For the sciences of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology, in this country, he did heroic service by the enterprise which led him to acquaint himself at the beginning of his course with the ablest living teachers in Great Britain, and by the rare power of eloquent exposition which was so useful in exciting the interest of his earlier pupils and in fascinating the public. He did much, also, by the generous kindness with which he furthered the plans and wishes of young men who aspired to become proficient and instructors, and by the hearty interest with which he recorded their success. The self-denial and hazard of pecuniary loss with which he originated and sustained the "Journal of Science" for so many years would alone bring the whole country under heavy obligations to him.

So thoughtful and public-spirited, he must of necessity take a warm interest in the politics of his country. Yet he was never a politician in the common acceptance of the term. In ordinary occasions of political strife he was too catholic in his sympathies and too charitable in his feelings to be ever very warmly excited. But the Kansas outrage stirred his whole soul to its depths and moved all the capacities of his soul for indignation. Unexpectedly this universal favorite at the South, as well as at the North, found himself delivered from the "woe" caused by all men speaking well of you (the only woe to which he was ever exposed), by being innocently associated with a proposal to arm innocent emigrants against ruffians invading their political rights and their quiet homes. During the war for the life of the nation he was anxious, prayerful, yet full of courage and hope. On the morning of the national thanksgiving he awoke to give audible utterance for the favor of God to the country, especially in raising up "that great and good man, Abraham Lincoln," then to pray for his family and to bless his wife for her affection, and, without a thought of death, to pass onward to another and better life.

The example of such a man in so long a life is a legacy of inspiration to the young men of the country, and not least valuable or important to the devotees of science, to lift them above the sordid and material aims, the petty rivalries, and the selfish ends from which even the most accomplished culture and the largest attainments and the widest acquaintance with men are not certain to deliver them. We are grateful for the life which glows with

such inspiring influences and to the biographer who has skillfully arranged its records.

The Giant Cities of Bashan, and Syria's Holy Places. By Rev. J. L. Porter, A.M., author of "Five Years in Damascus," "Murray's Hand-Book for Syria and Palestine," "The Pentateuch and the Gospel," etc. (T. Nelson & Sons, New York.)—This is a well-written, very interesting book. It bears evidence throughout of the closest observation and the most diligent research. We have many books of travel in which the problem seems to be how to expand the minimum of observation into the maximum of printer's ink. But Dr. Porter's problem seems to be how to compress a vast amount of observation into the dimensions of an ordinary book. The result is not so much a book of travel as a volume of topography. The joy of travel is not more in seeing this or that mountain or city than in going from place to place. Men with a genius for travel enable us to feel that we are journeying with them, and in this way refresh us. Montaigne and Heine have been in this respect our truest friends. They are not too tremendously in earnest. We are permitted to see everything with their eyes in a very easy, desultory way, and are not always out of breath from being hurried through on an excursion ticket, as it were, from place to place. But the animus of Dr. Porter's book is very different from this. It has a critical, not an æsthetic aim. It does not seek the reader's enjoyment, but his instruction. The journey is nothing, its termini are everything. But there are passages of very eloquent description, and many facts that students of the Bible will find helpful towards an elucidation of the sacred text. The oft-repeated story of how the Eastern shepherd leads his sheep and they follow him, is here told very happily. A part of these researches are remote from the more ordinary course of travel, and are more interesting on this account. But the familiar Holy Places have at the same time been visited and cross-examined in the hope of gaining further information to support the general thesis of the book, which is, that Bashan's Giant Cities and Syria's Holy Places are a mine of argument in favor of the credibility of the Bible narrative and a remarkable fulfilment of its prophecies. The candid reader, while conceding that the book illustrates many things spoken of in the Scriptures, will doubtless feel that Dr. Porter overrates the worth of his investigations. What has been called "the topographical fallacy" appears so frequently as to impair our general confidence. That fallacy consists in arguing that because Mt. Sinai can be identified, therefore the things reported to have happened there did really happen; or, again, that because a certain thing might possibly have happened in a certain place, it did actually happen there. Anybody who wishes to see this fallacy exposed with all the pleasantry and satire of which the French language and the French genius are capable, will be satisfied on reading Victor Hugo's last work, "The Toilers of the Sea." As an appeal from Bishop Colenso and the results of criticism, the book before us is of comparatively little worth; but as a report of what is actually to be seen, it can doubtless be relied upon. As an illustration of the sacred narratives, it should be highly prized. It is handsomely reprinted from the London edition and has numerous illustrations.

Poor Matt; or, The Clouded Intellect. By Jean Ingelow. (Roberts Brothers, Boston.)—It is natural to have high expectations of any new work from the hand that wrote "A High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," and if a little disappointment is the result of reading such a one, it is due rather to the unusual merit of the singer than to want of power in the story-teller. "Poor Matt" is an infinitely touching story. Matt himself is an idiot boy, rather attractive than repulsive, whose mind has been strongly laid hold of by one idea—the idea of God. All he has been able to grasp of this, which is the barest possible outline, has been taught him by the pastor's wife, some time dead when the story opens. His education is carried on by a lady who first sees him, in one of her walks, as he is standing by the seashore, absorbed in gazing at a rift in the sky between two clouds. In reply to her question as to what he is doing, he says, "Matt was looking for God. There was a great hole—Matt wanted to see God." The lady is not only "astonished" but "shocked" by this answer; but Matt accepts all that is told him with absolute literalness. Thus, when his grandfather dies, and it is explained that God "sent for him" to a beautiful place "where there is no sea," no storms, no cold; whereupon Matt urgently desires to be "sent for" too. He insists on having his "hands washed" and his "best cap on," in order to "be ready," since he is told he may be summoned at any moment. A moral is drawn from this by "the lady," for the instruction of the peasants present; one of the many morals which Poor Matt is made to point by his earnest, undoubting remarks; and they are well pointed, too, with a graceful seriousness which more than offsets their slight suggestiveness of "tracts." A strong and true religious conviction will carry much narrowness of belief. And if "the lady" does count too surely on Matt's understanding and receiving the doctrine of vicarious atonement from her ingenious method of conveying it to him, any one who doubts her success or the necessity for such an explanation to an idiot, will be robbed of desire to find fault by the beautiful liberal spirit pervading the whole of her patient teachings.

The close of the narrative is written with fine pathetic power. Matt suffers greatly from cold and hunger during a hard winter, his aunt dies, he is often beaten by a boy that is set to take care of him, "his lady," as he calls her, has been summoned from the neighborhood, and God, spite of his constant appeals, will not "send for him." One bitter night he escapes from the house and is found at the mouth of a cavern in the cliffs on the sea, standing with arms outstretched and woe-begone face fixed on the sky, crying, "God, God! oh send for poor Matt; let Matt go away!" The little girl—a real heroine—who finds him, runs back to get assistance; but Matt is frozen to death before it comes.

The Book of Roses. By Francis Parkman.—*Cultivation of the Grape.* By W. C. Strong. (J. E. Tilton & Co., Boston.)—These books come to us in a very attractive form. They are of convenient size, and the paper, printing, embellishments, and finish are unusually good, so that they will as often find a place on the centre-table as on the library shelves. The "Book of Roses" will please those who endeavor to beautify their homes with the "queen of flowers." It is a valuable manual for all who cultivate this popular shrub, whether expert or amateur, giving precisely the information on the subject so many persons need and desire. It is especially valuable to those who have but limited experience in the cultivation of the choicer varieties. It is beautifully adorned with cuts, but not illustrated.

The "Cultivation of the Grape" has more competitors in the field, several of which it does not surpass, except in the style in which it is offered. The book is very unequal in its parts, and very often leaves us in doubt which of several processes or methods described the author considers the best. The part relating to the propagation of the vine is most successfully treated, and we opine that in this branch of the subject the author has had the most experience. There is also much really valuable information relating to the management of vines and the treatment of their diseases. But Mr. Strong often indulges in hypotheses and "theoretical considerations" where we want plain statements of observed facts and the results of experience. The amateur cultivator especially wants the results of proved, or at least tried, methods, rather than suggestions of untried ones. The chapter on manures for the vine is very unsatisfactory. Many of the theoretical considerations are apparently derived from a perusal of the older works on agricultural chemistry rather than from the experience of vine-growers. That most important consideration of the effect of the various fertilizers recommended on the quality of the fruit, and on the wine made from it, is left out of consideration entirely. We notice, also, an insignificant error which probably first originated in a typographical blunder, and has since been copied into a number of works on the grape. The great California vine (mentioned on p. 15) is nearly three feet in circumference and not ten, as it is often printed. The illustrations are tasteful and accurate. A good index would increase the value of the book, although the table of contents is full and the arrangement of subjects judicious.

Cherry and Violet. A Tale of the Great Plague. By the author of "Mary Powell." (M. W. Dodd, New York.)—This little volume could have had no better introduction to the public than its two charming predecessors, "The Maiden and Married Life of Mary Powell" and "The Household of Sir Thomas More." The present story suffers in comparison with these because it is more dependent for its interest upon its incidents than upon its characters. The great plague is a very interesting theme, especially in these days of waiting for the cholera, but not so interesting as a great man like Milton, or Milton's very charming, very silly, little wife. And the great London fire, which burned up thirteen thousand houses in three days, is very interesting, but not so interesting as Sir Thomas More. But for all that it may suffer by comparison, the book, considered by itself, is very readable. It makes the life of just two centuries ago seem very near and actual. Cherry, who is supposed to write the history, lives with her father in his little shop on London Bridge. When the Protectorate is over, and Charles II. returns, of course they have the best of opportunities for seeing him. The fluctuations of the father's trade (he was a hair-dresser) consequent upon the Protectorate and afterward the Restoration, are depicted pleasantly enough. But the most artistic thing about the book is its apparent failure to appreciate the magnitude of these events with which it is concerned. The writer never once forgets that she is not herself but Cherry Curling, and she manages her facts accordingly.

EXPECTED WAR IN GERMANY.

WAR is expected in Germany, and the sudden announcement of it has thrown the whole political and financial world of Europe into the greatest confusion. The designs of Bismark have at last become dimly visible. "Romprons-nous ou ne romprons-nous pas?" say Austria and Prussia to each other, like the *soubrettes* and the *scapins* of Molière. Austria is arming. Prussia is arming. Austria will not attack, and Prussia will not attack. And still everybody believes in war. How is this? It is simply because Bismark is considered as very ambitious, very unscrupulous, very imprudent, but not absolutely mad. And if he prepares to go to war in spite of the German middle states and princes, in spite of England and Lord Clarendon, in spite of diplomatic protestations and assurances, in spite of the Prussian parliament, it must be that he has very good motives for it—some hidden reasons which he is not yet at liberty to make apparent to the world.

It is impossible to see why Germany should be convulsed by civil war; why a new thirty years' period of agitation, discord, and bloodshed should begin in the midst of the nineteenth century; why the question of the two miserable Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein should not be amicably settled between Austria, Prussia, and the Bund; but the absurdity of a war between Austria and Prussia does not, alas! make such a war impossible. There is no holy, no lofty principle which obliges the Germans to meet each other on new battle-fields; but are men always influenced by lofty and holy principles? The dream of German unity would be at an end if the various

sections of Germany were armed against each other; but Bismark cares not for Germany, but for Prussia. He wishes to leave Prussia to his successor a strong, compact military power, and he is willing to adopt every means to that end. He said once, "I am willing to give to France the Rhenish provinces, if I am allowed to take in Germany all I want and to make Prussia as strong as I wish; for, once strong, Prussia will easily retake the Rhenish provinces from the hands of her neighbor."

Bismark has been, very improperly, in my opinion, compared to Cavour. The cases of Germany and of Italy are very different. In Italy, Cavour had a double object—the expulsion of the foreign invaders and the creation of Italian unity. Germany has no foreign tyrants, and German unity could not be promoted by a war which would allow the foreign powers to interfere between the German combatants. It is evident that Bismark would never have gone as far as he has if he was not secretly assured of the support of the French Emperor. Bismark cannot believe that Prussia is capable of overwhelming Austria together with the middle states of Germany. Therefore, as he shows himself disposed to bully Austria into war, he must feel assured of a powerful assistance. Will Italy alone be his ally? Nobody in Europe believes it. Prussia could no more with the help of Italy than without it conquer Austria and Germany. Some other ally must be found stronger than Victor Emanuel. The King of Italy, or even Garibaldi, may, as the French say, "mettre le feu aux poudres" in Venetia; but the drama once begun, the principal scenes will not be played across the Alps, but across the Rhine.

France must ultimately come into action, if Bismark wishes to annex to Prussia not only the Danish Duchies, but the small kingdoms and principalities of central Germany. Already Bismark speaks of the revision of the federal congress, and proposes to elect a great German parliament by *universal suffrage*. Universal suffrage! Is not this an echo of the Tuileries? Does Bismark, who has so often treated his own Prussian parliament with contempt, and who professes openly to disregard constitutional institutions,—does he pronounce these fateful words, "universal suffrage," with the same spirit as a Gladstone or a Bright? To him, as to his Imperial model and eventual ally, universal suffrage is simply a weapon by which old governments can be destroyed and old rights thrown to the wind. Universal suffrage has given to France the province of Savoy, to Piedmont the Tuscan duchies and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, to Maximilian the empire of Mexico; it can be used for all ends, good or bad, in countries where there are no traditions of self-government, no political franchises and guarantees. Where universal suffrage has not been heralded by universal education, it becomes the most powerful ally of force and despotism. Bismark hopes to have all his annexations ratified by universal suffrage; the French Emperor entertains similar hopes; but they both in their hearts trust only the *droit d'icela* of their improved artillery.

"La raison du plus fort est toujours la meilleure." And so the Continent is drifting into war. The French Empire needs it, because the Liberal movement is becoming too strong and too overwhelming. Napoleon III. once told a lady while he was still an exile, "It is very easy to govern the French." "What is your secret, prince?" "A good war every three years." Well, we have had the good war of the Crimea, the good war of Italy, the (not quite so good) war of Mexico—is it not time that we should have another?

All the *familiars* of the Tuileries, among whom General Fleury is just now the great favorite, are in exultation. At one blow, they say, we will get rid of French Liberalism, which is becoming troublesome, we will settle the Italian question, and take the Rhine. All the young colonels dream of *bâtons de maréchal* and of titles; all the young diplomats, of future congresses and diamond snuff-boxes. We are preparing for the great crisis in the midst of pleasure. Paris has never been so brilliant. We have the Diva Patti at the Italian opera and "Don Juan" at the French opera, Danish princes at court, four-in-hands with liveries of all colors in the Champs Elysées, beautiful American *adonisques* at our private theatricals (in the "Ours et le Pacha," played at M. Drouyn de Lhuys, the Minister of Foreign Affairs); the clubs are full, and we play cards till three in the morning; we have balls *in powder*; Thérèse is as deservedly popular as ever; and we have even turned the drama of "Barbe Bleue," the story which so often haunted our infant mind, into the most extraordinary buffoonery at the "Variétés." King Bobèche, who has an important part in the new "Blue Beard," tells his minister: "C'est en ne sachant jamais ce que je ferai que j'ai appris à gouverner les hommes." And we might say: "C'est en ne sachant jamais ce que nous ferons que nous avons appris à nous laisser gouverner." Shall we have peace or war? We don't know; therefore let us have pleasure.

A. L.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

NATIONAL TREASURY SPECULATIONS.

MR. GLADSTONE made some remarks in his recent "financial statement" on the general subject of national debts which suggest some reflections both as to the future of this country and that of Western Europe in the highest degree interesting. There is no incident of modern political history more striking than the rapidity with which great debts have been contracted by the leading powers of the world, and the almost reckless readiness with which these debts continue to be increased, even in times of profound peace. France owes \$2,000,000,000; Spain owes \$725,000,000; Italy owes somewhat more, and is fast increasing her liability; Austria owes \$1,580,000,000; Russia, \$1,395,000,000, and smaller powers, in some cases, in proportion, in others out of all proportion. Nearly all these debts have been contracted within twenty years, and Holland is the only power in Europe, though one of the smallest and weakest, which has done anything within that period to diminish hers.

The readiness to resort to this pleasant mode of filling the treasury is due first to the greater regularity and certainty which the growth of law, order, and civilization has communicated to the collection of revenue. Governments now know pretty accurately every year what their income is to be, something which until the close of the last century they can hardly be said ever to have known. Their credit has consequently greatly improved. At the same time, and owing very much to the same causes, the wealth of their citizens has increased to such a degree that there are now great numbers of persons in every civilized country who literally do not know what to do with their money. Capital has in most old countries accumulated in such masses that the present holders are at their wits' ends to make it produce anything. The bolder and more knowing ones go into foreign banks, foreign railroads, mines, quarries, aerial machines, and all sorts of outlandish schemes, nine out of ten of which ruin the projectors. The more timid wait till some government wants to borrow money, and then rush forward with five times as much as it wanted. In fact, considering the readiness of the public to lend, the wonder is that governments have not borrowed more.

The tendency of all governments to extravagance, from one motive or another, has, of course, been greatly increased by this facility in borrowing. They have been enabled by it to maintain enormous military and naval establishments, and to set on foot gigantic works of improvement or embellishment, generally undertaken in order to reconcile the masses to the absence or loss of their liberties and to maintain courts in a splendor which has never been witnessed before in modern times. Louis the Fourteenth's palace at Versailles, great as it was in its day, was a mean establishment compared to the Tuileries in our day.

The evident intention of all these great borrowers, and it is an intention in which they find no difficulty in getting their subjects to acquiesce, is to let posterity pay the piper, while the present generation does the dancing. But the question is now beginning to be asked seriously whether posterity will be able to pay the piper? Some countries which have hitherto, like Germany, France, and Russia, been retarded in their growth by bad governments, may possibly answer this question in the affirmative. They are now only beginning to run the great industrial race. We spoke, in the "Scientific Notes" of the last number of THE NATION, of the extent to which certain great branches of manufactures are being transferred from England to the Continent, in spite of the great advantages in point of time and circumstances which the latter has enjoyed, and there is no question that this process will now go on more and more rapidly every day.

As regards England, however, the question cannot be answered with the same confidence. To her it is an awful question, and the manner in which Mr. Gladstone dealt with it opened up a vista of changes, both social and political, as the mere consequence of the rapidly approaching exhaustion of her coal-fields, which nobody now attempts to

deny, more stupendous and momentous than any which have occurred in Europe since the fall of the Roman Empire. There is no doubt that as the coal-fields of England, or other natural advantages of that or of other European countries, begin to be worn out, and profits and wages consequently to fall, and the pressure of the taxation necessary to maintain the public credit to become consequently less endurable, persons whose property is movable, such as capitalists and persons who are dependent on their own labor, will emigrate to America, and other new countries. This will throw the whole burden on the landholders who remain behind, and who will have to remain behind, and it is not safe to say that they will be able to support it, or will even do so by submitting to great impoverishment. Should this state of things come to pass, the possibility to which we ventured to refer last week, that England would eventually become a great summer resort of the inhabitants of this continent, and occupy much the same relation to America that the Isle of Wight does to England herself, will certainly be realized.

In fact, unless some great change, a change for which at present we see no reason to look, should occur in the system of government now pursued in most European countries, we may fairly expect before very long to see the weight of taxation become so great as to overcome the strong feeling of local attachment, which is, in most places, the great impediment to emigration, and a tide begin to set in towards our shores from England and the Continent as great as that which we have now for some years been receiving from Ireland. It takes very strong influences to drive people into abandoning their ancient seats, but the movement once opened, its force increases in geometrical ratio.

PRICES.

AMIDST all the divergences of opinion which distract the members of the Universal Yankee Nation—political, ecclesiastical, and economical—there is one on which they are of one mind. Nobody denies that prices are frightfully high. The great fact that we have to pay double for everything that we eat, drink, wear, or live in, is one level to the very meanest capacity. Prices had waxed fat before the war, even, and were almost double what they used to be in the days before California was invented. But the war necessarily increased the inflammation of our quarterly bills to a truly febrile virulence. The depreciation of the currency and the diversion of the labor of near a million men from productive to destructive pursuits sufficiently account for this state of things. The war being over, and the soldiers having been dispersed to beat their swords into ploughshares and their spears into pruning-hooks, and the growth of the national debt having been checked, the question presents itself to every mind, how soon prices will fall back to their old level or something like it? That there will be an approximation to that golden mean is certain, as the morbid stimulation of an inflated currency is gradually reduced, and only the wholesome tide of specie left to regulate the circulations of the body politic. Whether it be possible that the necessities and luxuries of life can ever be restored to the *status quo ante bellum*, is doubtful. Certainly not without an intelligent direction and application of industry, such as does not yet seem to develop itself, but which certainly lies within the competency of the American people. At any rate, this is as good a time as any to take an observation, find out just where we are, and consider how we had best lay our course.

There are two very sufficient causes for the inflammation of prices, apart from the stimulus given them by the war—first, the actual diminution in the value of gold and silver; and secondly, the decrease in production when compared with the increase in consumption of the necessities of life. It is with gold as it was with the Sibylline books, it increases in value as it diminishes in quantity, and *vice versa*. Whenever the dollar shall be restored to the throne again, almighty as it will but too certainly still be over men's souls, it will be of less relative power than ever before over their markets. In fact, it is the multiplication of the precious metals that has raised the nominal value of everything that they purchase, much more than the temporary influence of the war. For the same effect has been produced over all the world by the same causes. Since the gold discoveries in California and Australia the volume of the "all-worshipped ore" has been multiplied

beyond all former precedent and almost beyond imagination. It has increased immensely the actual wealth of the world by the impulse it has given to commerce and manufactures, and at the same time it has increased the prices of the commodities thus multiplied. It is only strange that this derangement of prices did not take place much earlier and more suddenly, considering what a multitude of millions was added every year to the currency of the world. This is accounted for partly by the increased use of the precious metals in the arts, but chiefly by its absorption by India, where the currency is almost entirely silver. And here is an example that it is not the quality of a currency but its redundancy that inflates prices. India used to be the cheapest country in the world to live in. Now, it is as dear as any, every particular of living having at least doubled in price within the last fifteen years, because there is twice the amount of currency in circulation. Just as in Canada, where our silver coin took refuge when we stopped specie payments here, a silver dollar would buy only ninety cents worth of merchandise. Still, as the printing press can coin money much faster than the mint, it is advisable to reduce the issues of the former agency to a convertible proportion with those of the latter with all convenient speed.

A similar revolution in values took place in the sixteenth century in consequence of the multiplication of silver after the conquest of Mexico and Peru. We find the dignity of the shilling expand and bourgeois as its pedigree ascends towards the dark ages, as if it were a royal or noble house. Forty of them stood for about as much as many pounds sterling do now, or did twenty years ago. Forty shillings used to be a usual endowment of a scholarship at a university, and sums similarly absurd, as they sound to us now, were bequeathed for the foundation of schools and colleges. Even within the last century a very great change has taken place in the value of money. An income in England which was thought affluent a hundred years ago is little more than a competency now. And so in this country, without taking into the account the enormous fortunes which have risen like exhalations out of the soil of battle-fields, and which may possibly vanish like exhalations. How high the advancing flood of this golden tide may rise is beyond the skill of any weather-prophet to foresee, however skilled in the signs of the times. All that human wisdom can do is to stand ready to accommodate action to its exigencies, and to direct it as far as may be done for the general good, while guarding against private injury. When the level becomes tolerably well established, the change is more apparent than real. The capitalists receive larger nominal incomes, but as the things they must buy for support, enjoyment, or investment are proportionably dear, they are really no richer than before. Wages, too, must be borne upward on the advancing wave of gold, though they are too often the last to find their due level. Persons living on salaries and fixed incomes are the persons the most immediately impoverished by the change in the measure of values, until they, too, feel the upward tendency, which, sooner or later, they must do.

But the inflation of prices is due to another cause besides the multiplication of coin, viz., in the diminution in the production of the necessities and luxuries of life of the value of which coin is the measure. We have to pay more for everything we eat, drink, and wear even than the diminished value of money would account for, because there is not as much labor and capital bestowed upon their production as in former years, in proportion to the increased demand for them. The haste to be rich, if not more innocent of old time than it is now, used to be more largely directed to more really profitable uses. The land used to be the principal investment for capital, not for the erection of castles in the air, of cities under water, and of corner lots in the wilderness, but for the actual multiplication of the kindly fruits of the earth. The tendency of the present time, everywhere, is from the country to the large cities, and thus to divert capital and labor from the soil. In the Old World land is still the chief element of wealth and political power, and, therefore, greater pains and larger amounts of capital are bestowed upon it to extort from its bosom all that skill, science, labor, and money can compel. Agriculture is the foundation of all wealth here as well as there. Nobody doubts this truth, but too many seem to wish that the foundation should be built upon by some-

body else while he gives his energies to the lighter and more ornamental portions of the edifice of public prosperity. The opening of the South to free labor, as soon as our "misguided fellow-citizens" shall cease biting their own noses off to spite their faces (which they will soon find is an unremunerative expenditure of their energies), will perhaps tend to keep up the prices of other agricultural productions besides cotton and rice and, possibly, sugar. But this very circumstance may stimulate invention and direct capital to multiply them. Capital and skill are essential elements of prosperity in every branch of industry. The discovery will be made in time that there is no bank or manufactory so safe or so sure in its returns as the boon earth, in proportion to the investment of capital and skill committed to her charge. Then there will be a due adjustment of the industries that create the fruits of the earth, that convert them into various shapes, and that exchange them commercially in the wise organization of the great commissariat of the world. Until production shall have overtaken and outstripped consumption, there can be no material change in prices. It is a state of politico-economical transition that we are now passing through, to which we must adapt ourselves as wisely as we can, assured that the laws which Providence is striving to reveal to us will reduce everything to order and prosperity as soon as they are allowed to have their due sway.

THE DOOM OF THE DEADHEADS.

THERE is a fearful shaking among the dry bones. The ruthless hand of Albany legislation has been stretched forth to disturb the long rest which has brooded immemorially over the noble army of the Dead-heads—an "exceeding great army," like that which the prophet Ezekiel saw in vision come together in the valley "with a noise and a shaking." The great vested interest in travelling at other people's expense has been assailed. The beatific privilege of paying one's fare with a smile is snatched away. The elect can no longer be wafted from one end of the land to the other through the magical properties of a scrap of paper no bigger than a man's hand, which put to an open shame the cheap conveyance of Prince Hussein's tapestry. It is no longer not merely glory, but great gain, to be the son, brother, second cousin, or grand uncle of a director. The lofty courtesy which passed the engine-driver or brakeman of the Poppasquash and Skunk's Misery Railway free over all other roads in respect to his exalted station, is forbidden by law. Even the freedom of the press is violated. Editors and reporters will henceforward be reduced to the level of common men, and have to pay their way like their even Christians. But this is too painful a theme to contemplate. Let us turn our eyes in another direction.

This great revolution has been forced through, apparently, in the interest of a class of persons who have not been usually thought of consequence enough for special notice. We mean the shareholders in the corporations thus magnanimously managed, and bent upon proving that they *have* souls, in spite of a profane and ribald proverb to the contrary. Unreasonable and impracticable members of this insignificant class have had their selfish passions excited for long years past, as they glided along on "the pale iron edge" they have paid for originally and paid again for the privilege of using it, at seeing a self-complacent citizen sitting next to them carried triumphantly along with them without money and without price. If of a mathematical turn of mind, the shareholder probably occupied himself surlily in cyphering out how much a fair average of such benevolences might amount to in the course of a year, and perhaps came to the conclusion that the mystery of dwindling dividends in the presence of growing travel might be thus partially solved. If of an impulsive and fiery temperament, he would be very apt to do what is of very evil ensample in any one connected with a railway, and "burst his boiler" at the next annual meeting of the corporation, and blow up the president and directors without mercy. But it is an idiosyncrasy in the natural history of presidents and directors that, like cats, they always come down on their feet, to whatever height blown up. The "set of querulous meddlers," as the *Times* might call them, is soothed by promises of amendment, which too often prove, like the promises of other great men, as well as pie-crust, to be made to be broken.

One of the great dailies, which we quoted just now, thinks it is

"almost impossible to speak seriously of the act" which proposes to circumscribe the majesty of the deadheads. It may be difficult to carry the law into effect and so it may become a just subject of ridicule, as all ineffective laws are; but it will be no laughing matter to many of that respectable portion of our travelling public if it be enforced. The existence of such a class seems to us the fitter provocation of merriment. We see no reason why a law so obviously for the benefit of railway property should not be carried into effect. The difficulty in the way of abating the deadhead nuisance long ago, by general consent of all the companies, has been the competition of selfish interests in their management. Every railway manager was apt to think that he was cunning enough to outwit his neighbors in the contest, and so to evade any arrangement that should deprive him of this species of bribery and leave travel to its natural conditions. Ten years ago, if we remember aright, the president of the Erie Railway urged a general alliance, offensive and defensive, against the incursions of the deadheads. But we presume the mischief had become too inveterate and the habits of railway management too depraved to make this possible. The interposition of the State gives them all now an opportunity to reform their ways, which, if they have grace to do it, will redound to the general benefit of the travelling public as well as to the particular emolument of the long-suffering shareholders.

We believe that it is to the universal Yankee nation that the English vocabulary owes the expressive neologism "deadhead." We are not sure whether or not our cousins on the other side have yet incorporated it with their daily speech. The thing they have most unquestionably, and, as we can never invent a new slang expression that they do not make haste to borrow, it is very likely they have the word, too. Like most abuses, its growth has been gradual. Like other parasites which attach themselves to great bodies, the deadhead system has waxed fat at the expense of the wholesome juices of the body it has grown to. It was originally contrived in the interest of the corporations. The president and directors were naturally and reasonably made free of their roads, then the members of their families, and it was a study to the genealogist to see how widely the ramifications of the directorial family-tree could extend; then all persons bringing freight were permitted to travel free; then all sorts of railway officials, from the president to the stoker, were passed free as a tribute to their official dignity. Editors of all sorts of newspapers were early given the run of all roads as a privilege duly appurtenant to puffery. And so the thing went on. Some of these excrescences have doubtless been cut off, but there remain enough to invite the excision of the legislative pruning-hook.

The mischiefs of deadheadism also attach to all public amusements, though they cannot be reached by law. If the managers of theatres and other places of public entertainment find it profitable or pleasant to give away sheafs of tickets, it is nobody's business but their own. But innocent spectators are often amazed to hear that certain theatrical or operatic enterprises are ruinous adventures when they see the houses full. In the simplicity of their good easy souls they do not dream how many of the best seats are filled by those whose entertainment is purely eleemosynary. There would be no deficit in treasuries if all paid honestly for their amusement. But as long as managers and agents will persist in pelting editors with free admissions and complimentary tickets, it is too much to expect of editorial human nature that they should be refused. The only concern the public has in this matter, and it is a material one, is that this system is all but fatal to genuine dramatic criticism. It has perverted what passes for such into mawkish and indiscriminate flattery. There are exceptions, doubtless, but the general feeling naturally is that it is uncivil to speak severely of an entertainment to which you have been freely invited, and that it is hardly fair to ridicule what your host has set before you. We imagine all the best journals would be willing to waive their courtesies and pay for the ticket of their critic on the usual terms. If it be an object to the managers of theatres to put a stop to this custom, it can be done by such a blessed conspiracy as that by which they have put to an open shame the ogre of the press who held them in a hopeless thralldom. But perhaps they had rather *not* have impartial criticism on what they give the public. It is their affair.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN LECTURESHIP AT CAMBRIDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I have read your article on the rejection of Mr. Yates Thompson's generous offer of an American lectureship to the University of Cambridge. My own sentiments on the subject you may easily divine. They would be more appropriately expressed in an English than in an American journal. But there are two remarks which I will beg your permission to make as tending partially to qualify the view you have taken of the conduct of the university in this matter.

In the first place, I am told, and can easily believe, that among those who voted against the acceptance of the lectureship there were many who, while they entirely concurred with Mr. Thompson in the good object which he had in view, doubted whether the foundation of a lectureship of the kind proposed would be the best means of effecting it. I confess that I share this doubt myself. I think that in a place where so many lectures have to be attended for academical purposes, a course of lectures on a non-academical subject would run the risk of being very thinly attended; and I also think that unless the lecturer was endowed with singular tact as well as ability he might be in some danger of repelling those whom he was endeavoring to attract. I am inclined to the opinion that a good collection of American books and statistics made accessible to the students would be more sure of producing the desired effect. A collection of American books, chosen with perfect freedom as regards subjects and opinions, was, as I happen to know, very cordially welcomed by a college in this university; and I believe that any American visitor who enquires at the Bodleian Library will find that the American department there is already good and is being rapidly increased by past purchases.

In the second place, so far as the opponents of the lectureship were actuated by any antipathy, their antipathy was, I suspect, rather ecclesiastical than national. Of all your enemies on this side of the water, the Episcopal clergy have been the most bitter. But this phenomena is not peculiarly British, nor such as ought to provoke special resentment against this country on the part of Americans. It is the world-wide antagonism of the priest party to liberty of body and soul. You have Jesuits among yourselves. Were they very ardent in their loyalty to the national cause?

I am, sir, your faithful servant,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

OXFORD, England, May 1, 1866.

WHEELING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In your issue of December 7, on page 722, occurs the statement, "A Hungarian . . . was broken on the wheel." I do not know from what German statement this has been translated, nor do I propose to make it the subject of remark; but I have never seen an English translation of the German term "rädern" or the French word "rouer," "to wheel," which did not render it "to break on the wheel." Even the "New American Cyclopaedia" countenances this mistranslation. See its article on Patkul, and also Vol. XV., page 550, at foot of second column, under the remarks on cruel punishments appended to the article on torture. Webster in his dictionary regards the wheel not as an instrument of execution, but of torture or examination.

Pierer's "Universal-Lexikon," under the article "Raedern," defines it as a "severe death-penalty, in which the culprit, stretched on the ground, has his arms and legs broken and his breast crushed with the front wheel of a wagon." This corresponds with what I was told in Germany and German Switzerland by persons acquainted with the punishment, except that no particular kind of wheel was specified. At Fribourg, in Switzerland, however, I examined one which was evidently intended to be more efficient than a wagon wheel. It was, as nearly as I recollect, between three and four feet in diameter. Part, at least, of its circumference was shod with an iron attachment, hardly sharp enough to cut and yet sharp enough to render it more efficacious in breaking. A young man who accompanied me lifted it and remarked that he had, in 1820 or 1822, seen a person executed with it for killing one of his parents. The malefactor was bound on the ground to stakes and his limbs broken. The law, as I was informed at Berlin, recognizes two forms of "wheeling": 1st. "From above downwards." In this form, the first blow falls on the victim's chest and is intended to kill him, the limbs being afterwards broken. 2d. "From below upwards." In this the limbs are first broken and the victim is afterwards despatched. This

latter form appears to be expressed in French by the term "rompre vif," or "rouer vif," to "break alive," or "wheel alive." A professor at Berlin told me that in the case of Patkul, the Livonian—an agent of Peter the Great—wheeled by the brutality of Charles XII., the wheel was destitute of iron and less efficient. This will account for Voltaire's statement (*Histoire de Charles XII.*, Livre III.) that the sufferer received sixteen blows. Worcester in his dictionary, under the word wheel, states that "in France the criminal was laid on a frame of wood in the form of a St. Andrew's cross, with grooves cut transversely in it above and below the knees and elbows." This would render the executioner's blows more effective. His statement that in Germany "the criminal was laid on a cart-wheel, with his arms and legs extended, and his limbs in that posture fractured with an iron bar," must be exceptional if not partly erroneous. The iron bar, or club, was used in some countries (Pierer's *Lexikon*, Art. *Raedern*); and it was formerly, if it be not yet, customary to bind the body of a criminal AFTER execution on a wheel, and expose it to the public gaze.

"Wheeling," according to information which I received in Europe, is in some countries the recognized punishment for unusual crimes, including parricides and, since the king is legally construed to be the father of his people, for regicides. An extract subjoined below would seem to imply that a bishop is legally regarded as father of his flock, and that his murderer is treated in the same way. In the army of Frederic II., according to Archenholtz (*Historische Schriften*, Vol. I., p. 28), whoever carried insubordination "to acts of violence with weapon in hand was wheeled alive." During the winter of 1840-41, while I was in Berlin, a man, by some deemed insane, attempted the king's life. My landlady, the next day, repeated to me the opinion of others that some frightful punishment would be devised for the assassin. I smiled at the idea, but learned afterwards from competent legal authority that "wheeling" was the recognized punishment. After my return to America in 1841, probably within a few years afterwards, I cut the following from some newspaper, the name and date of which are unfortunately lost:

"DREADFUL SPECTACLE.—Rudolph Kuhnappel, the tailor, who murdered the Bishop of Ermeland and his housekeeper, at Frauenburg, Germany, about six months ago, was broken on the wheel [*i. e.*, wheeled] on the 7th ult. He died in ten minutes. Ten thousand persons were present—half females."

Since writing the above, I notice that the last edition of "Webster's Dictionary" (1866) quotes from Brande essentially the same account of the wheel as is quoted in Worcester, implying that it is an instrument of *punishment*, but leaves unchanged the definition that it is an instrument for *torturing*. The difference between the two is correctly stated in the "New American Cyclopaedia," at the beginning of the article on torture. One item omitted by that article was interesting to me and may be so to others. The civil law, as practised in some European countries, does not permit execution until a criminal has confessed his crime. Consequently, even in our days, persons who were deemed notoriously guilty have been tortured to make them confess.

F. HUIDEKOPER.

MEADVILLE, PA., May 9, 1866.

COTTAGE ARCHITECTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In the May number of "Harper's Magazine" is an article in which the subject of the proper arrangement of a cottage residence of moderate size is taken up and discussed, and the ideal of the author is given in a series of neatly-drawn plans. The professed intention is to show that in a house about 30 x 50 feet convenient accommodations for a family can be provided and ample ventilation secured. The general statement in regard to the necessity for improvement in American houses is undoubtedly correct, and every judicious effort to influence public opinion in this direction should be gratefully received; but the particular illustration given in this case, in my judgment, is by no means as free from objections as its author apparently believes, and, as "Harper's Magazine" is widely circulated, you will perhaps permit me to point out some particulars in which it should not be adopted as a model.

We have presented to us a two-story and basement house, from thirty to forty feet wide and fifty feet long, which provides kitchen, laundry, six or seven bed-rooms, and two large living-rooms, with conservatory attached. Such a house is unlikely to be built by the head of a family who is not tolerably well-to-do in the world, and who cannot afford to keep at least one servant. Most men, at least, would, I am confident, prefer a smaller house with some help to keep it in order, to a house of this size without any assistance except from members of the family. Yet the plan provides no way

a servant to pass from the kitchen to the front door to let in a visitor or even to reach her bed-room, when she desires to make herself tidy after her work is done, without passing to and fro through the rooms occupied by the members of the family and their guests, or through the bath-room, etc., which is located in the center of the building.

Although the dimensions of the house seem liberal, the first prospect on entering the main hall is a wash closet—not in any subordinate position, but directly opposite the front door—between the living room with conservatory attached and the principal stair-case, which is intended to be enclosed on both sides, as is usual in attic or basement stairs, and which will therefore present a cramped, illiberal appearance. In a house containing many different apartments, each room may be occupied by but one person; the stair-case, however, is the common avenue of communication for all, and it is an error to crowd and contract it with the hope of thereby adding to the value of the accommodations as a whole.

The kitchen connects directly with the dining-room by two doors, yet the large dimensions given do not call for this uncomfortable arrangement.

But the most disagreeable feature of the plan, considering it as a professedly complete arrangement in matters of ventilation, is the placing of the bath-room and necessary in the very centre of the house, where it would be unlighted except through glazed openings that merely connect with halls or passages, and where a current of fresh air could only be obtained by opening doors that ought to be always closed.

The writer and the editors probably believe in all sincerity that the difficulties of the problem are fairly met and solved in this design; but the few prominent inconsistencies that have already been pointed out will be sufficient to show that this is not the case, and that the plan as presented, however well intended, is ill-conceived and by no means suitable for adoption by those who may be fortunate enough to possess the money that it would cost to build such a roomy family residence.

A.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[THIRD NOTICE.]

It is a growing custom to send important pictures elsewhere for exhibition than to the Academy. We have no business now with the reasons for this tendency, nor, indeed, are the reasons sufficiently evident for any one to be quite sure that he perceives and duly estimates them all. It is only to be remarked that a complete account of the last winter's work of the artists even of New York and its neighborhood would only be possible after an examination of perhaps as many pictures not in this exhibition as there are important, notice-worthy pictures in it. The greater number of our painters, so far as we know, are open to the charge of producing less work *per annum* than the world has a right to expect of them. When, of the already too small amount of work done, a part goes elsewhere than to these galleries and another part is never exhibited at all, there is a difficulty, an insuperable difficulty, in the way of adequate criticism. It is impossible to be sure that the judgment which comes of examining a painter's work in the Academy exhibition would not be much changed if all his year's work could be seen. And, if it were not now too late to attempt it, an extensive examination of all the new pictures anywhere to be publicly seen would be the duty of the critical press.

Mr. McEntee, however, has three pictures at the Academy, and they are so able that it is good to believe they fully represent his present power as a painter. The merit of his pictures seems to be steadily in the ascendant. Of the almost complete truth of color which his former studies of autumn woods have shown, these present studies of autumn woods have lost nothing. They have, we think, all of the feeling for the mingled desolateness and beauty of the American autumnal landscape which Mr. McEntee's work has shown in past years. The sky in No. 356, "Woods of Ashokan," is singularly true in feeling; the foliage is almost right in color, especially in the distance, and we are not prepared to assert that in this one respect the picture could be improved by the knowledge or skill of any living artist. Beyond these merits, which have been merits of nearly all Mr. McEntee's pictures these few years past, there is a care for detail in these and a respect for accurate drawing for its own sake—or rather for the sake of the things drawn—which we are sincerely glad to see. The foreground in the above-named picture is a great advance beyond anything of this painter's we have ever seen, especially in the care given to the little plants—lobelia, ferns (dry and yellow), and little maple saplings with crimson leaves. The advance is

in McEntee's own line, too, nothing borrowed of any one else or studied in any one else's way, but nature looked at and drawn as this painter has always looked and drawn, but more carefully and more truly. In saying this we have no intention of calling the drawing of tree form absolutely right; it is by no means wholly right, but mannered and often visibly wrong. And even a better picture than this would suffer from such a blot as that in the lower left-hand corner of the picture above named, where some pine bushes, just at the edge of a brook, are wholly ignored by the water, whose reflections, otherwise truthfully represented, are wholly uninfluenced by the green mass just above them. This hurts the effect as well as the truthfulness of the picture. The brook is otherwise very charming. No. 392, "October in the Kaatskills," we think inferior to the former picture, though its characteristics are the same. The peep of sunlight, illuminating both a spur of the mountain range and a nearer and much lower hill, is very charming. But this is in no respect an adequate rendering of the mass and the details of form of the Catskill range. It happens that good mountain drawing is a specialty of the best American landscape painters, and beside the best mountain drawing, Mr. McEntee's is very imperfect.

No. 449, "Flight of the Birds," is also a pleasant landscape, smaller than the two above named. A tree almost without leaves is in the foreground, its naked branches covered with birds preparing for their migration, and a scattered column already on its march. About these birds there is one thing noticeable, the mingling together in this mustering for the march of birds of so many different kinds, blue birds and red birds, yellow birds and gray birds. Individuals of many species are included in this gathering of the clans. To justify as natural this statement—and not less to declare it wholly impossible—would require a very close and accurate knowledge of the ways of birds.

Mr. C. C. Griswold sends two pictures; the larger is another winter picture called "The Last of the Ice," No. 312. A stretch of what seems the Hudson River is shrouded in mist, lifting a little from the surface of the water but wholly concealing the hill-tops, the profiles of the hills dimly seen below, and lost in nothingness above. On a low shore in the near foreground are broken cakes of ice aground, and a few, water-soaked and floating deeply, are drifting with the tide. There is, perhaps, something too little incident for so large a canvas. But the painter's strength comes to him and his success is assured when he touches his favorite rocky bank and cedars again; here it is, in the middle distance and at the extreme left. It is no wonder he loves that subject; it is worth painting, and he has painted it wonderfully well. A scribble of his of a winter hill side, in oil color, on a bit of paper, is worth more than pictures by many men. Green pictures he has not yet painted with great success, but No. 463, "A Summer Picture," is very beautiful in all except the near foreground. The belt, so to speak, of middle distance, ending with the white house on the right, is charming. But that unfortunate spotty tree in the foreground, beneath which we see the white house, and the mulleins still nearer, hurt the whole picture. It is more welcome to us than the larger one, however, and one of the few good because thoughtful landscapes in the exhibition.

In comparing the memory of Mr. Brevoort's study, exhibited last fall, which we have not seen since, with the presence of the two pictures now in the North Gallery, the advantage is with the study. It was purer and truer in color than these are, and better, we think, in other respects as well. There is something peculiarly disagreeable in the tone of color, especially, of No. 215, "Haymaking." We do not use the word "leathery," as it seems to lack exactness of meaning when applied to color, but it has been used of the prevailing color of this picture, and it is evident what it is intended, in this case, to mean. Natural landscape was never pervaded by the yellowish-brown tone of this picture, and it is a false and misdirected operation of the artist's mind to alter nature in this way, out of which no beauty comes nor knowledge. The other picture, No. 167, "In the Farmington Valley, Conn.," is a more interesting picture, though the sky is probably less carefully studied. We sincerely believe that Mr. Brevoort is going to succeed, but it is not success this spring.

Mr. Cropsey has painted several panoramic pictures of late years, all open to the charge of being too scattered in interest, too unharmonious, an aggregate of small and incoherent parts, but generally worth study part by part. The large "Gettysburg" this year, No. 409, is as panoramic as those which went before. One walks along in front of it using many points of sight. But it is otherwise almost wholly below Mr. Cropsey's standard. It is incredibly bad in color. Anything worse than the sunset light on trees and buildings there is not in the exhibition, among works of men of any merit. This is at its worst in the very centre of the picture, at the foot of the flag-staff in the foreground. There is no delicacy of drawing to be found anywhere on the broad canvas. But the rest of the picture seem

quiet and refined in contrast with the rumpled flag, which neither floats nor flutters nor blows out nor falls, but crinkles and gets "mussed" in the summer breeze. We are heartily sorry to see this picture here, and wish the committee had been kinder to Mr. Cropsey and sent it back for his further consideration.

It is a very great evil, the painting of very large pictures with very little thought in them. And the evil is greater where not only the amount of canvas covered, but also the amount of labor given, is in excess. The picture last named has very little in it; a great many trees, indeed, a great many houses, a big flag, and a couple promenading, but all very uncommunicative, with very little new or interesting to say. All could have been better said in a canvas two feet long; better, because, with no greater excellence, the defects would not be so evident nor the faults so glaring. "But it is a historical landscape, a picture of the great National Cemetery at Gettysburg, famous from the noble words of our dead President spoken at its dedication." Not so; it has none of the importance of a historical landscape; we have yet to learn that a bad account of great events is true history, or that an inferior picture of a somewhat interesting scene, around which scene historical associations cluster, is necessarily historically valuable. The historian makes but a poor figure unless he is filled with thought and sympathy for his subject; now it is not a profound thought or a ready sympathy that has gone to the making of this large picture; neither of the landscape itself, nor the clustered graves of soldiers, nor the national flag, nor the human figures that blot the right hand foreground.

Mr. Cropsey is a better painter than he would have the world believe.

We notice with pleasure Mr. D. Neal's picture, No. 149, "Interior of St. Mark's, Venice." The interior of that loveliest of churches—roofed with gold, floored with agate—enclosed with walls of half-transparent alabaster—is a subject for the painter of importance and difficulty almost equal to out-of-door nature itself. We do not say that Mr. Neal has perfectly rendered the mellow gloom of the dusky interior, the purple flushes that come and go around the precious shafts and along the alabaster-sheathed piers.

A score of painters have tried and failed to do that. But Mr. Neal's picture is the best view of the interior we have yet seen, giving an adequate idea of the construction, appearance, and size of the strange building, and portraying with singular sympathy and success the Byzantine mosaics of the vaults. To those who know the interior of St. Mark's well and feel its beauty this picture would be of little use, but the many who have never seen or scarcely looked at it may learn much of it from the canvas before us.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 17, 1866.

THE markets are kept in a feverish condition by the war news from Europe. Cotton has declined in Liverpool to 12½d. to 13d. for middling uplands. A week ago the decline abroad led to a corresponding concession by holders here; but since then telegraphic advices of a heavy falling off in the receipts at the Southern ports, coupled with "bear" predictions respecting the yield of the new crop, have imparted fresh activity to our market, and an advance of 1 to 2 cents has been realized. Cotton is now considerably higher here than in England. So are all kinds of breadstuffs and provisions, and in the case of some descriptions the difference leaves a margin for profit on importations from Europe. Two cargoes of American wheat arrived here a week ago from Liverpool and were sold yesterday at a fair profit. American lard is likewise coming here from Great Britain. The country is thus without the means of paying its debts to Europe by the shipment of its staple exports, and in their absence gold is going forward. Yesterday about \$3,500,000 in coin and bars were shipped, and on Saturday a further considerable shipment is expected. Exchange on London rules at 109½ to 109¾ for bankers' bills.

The renewal of specie shipments would have led to a smart advance in the premium on gold but that the Treasury Department appeared in the market as a seller. A million or so was sold on Tuesday, and about six millions yesterday at 130¼ to 130½. This checked the upward tendency of the market. Opinions vary with regard to the policy of these Government sales. There are many who charge the Government officials with speculating upon their knowledge of the purposes of the department; but thus far there is no evidence that the public interests have suffered by the operations—if there have been any such—of the parties "within the ring."

Money continues a drug; call loans are 4 to 5 per cent. Should Government continue to sell gold, the banks would lose greenbacks enough to make a change in the market. The report of the investigating committee on the Merchants' Bank of Washington is anxiously looked for. It seems monstrous that Government should be paying 4 to 5 per cent. interest for money which it leaves free of interest in the national banks, which, in their turn, lend it to speculators at 5 to 6 per cent. It is whispered that part of the very money which Government left with the Merchants' National Bank was used to effect the late corner in Michigan Southern. Reform in this branch of the administration is essential, or a financial crisis will soon become inevitable.

Stocks have been rather more active within the past day or two. Governments have been generally lower on sales of bonds imported from abroad or to arrive. Old 5-20s sold as low as 101½, rallying afterwards to the price given in the table. A clique movement in Erie forced up the price on Monday to 76, but at the advance the buyers realized and the stock fell back at once. The May earnings thus far show a falling off not less than that of April. Central was rushed up to 94 yesterday on purchases by a new party. To-day it sold as high as "½. Pittsburg and Fort Wayne are firmly held. Rock

Island is weak; the holders are evidently willing to let the public have as much stock as they need. Active fluctuations take place in the lighter fancies. Canton rises steadily; sold as high as 62. Boston Water Power, which was 36 a week ago, was quoted yesterday at 43½, and this morning at 41. Cumberland jumped up this morning to 49, but was afterward done at 47½. On the other hand, Mariposa Preferred, which sold at 25¼ ten days since, was done yesterday at 19½, and Western Union Telegraph, which was 64 to 65, sold yesterday at 58. The ease of money tempts speculators to buy for the rise, but when they try to sell the absence of any substantial consumptive demand for stocks becomes very apparent.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 10.	May 14.	May 17.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	109½	109	108½	½
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5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	102	102	101½	½
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7-30 Notes, second series.....	102½	102½	102½
New York Central.....	92½	92½	94½	1½
Erie Railway.....	73½	73½	73½
Hudson River.....	109½	109½	109½
Reading Railroad.....	107½	107½	107½
Michigan Southern.....	78½	80	79½	½
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	82½	84½	84½
Chicago and North-western.....	29½	28½	28½
" " Preferred.....	60½	59	58½	½
Chicago and Rock Island.....	95½ ex. d.	94½	93½	½
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	99½	99	98½	½
Canton.....	58½	61	61½	¾
Cumberland.....	45	45½	47½	2½
Mariposa.....	12½	12½	12½
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Bankers' Bills on London.....	109½	109½	109½
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46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

1866.
TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT
 OF THE
MUTUAL
LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
 OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,
 Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

\$ 14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring	\$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same,	7,830,925 92
	\$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865,	\$11,799,414 08
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RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies.....	\$1,154,096 94		
Renewals.....	1,818,054 82		
War extras and annuities.....	15,428 64	\$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages.....	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks.....	352,329 52		
Premium on gold.....	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent.....		55,833 34	\$2,853,065 80
Total.....			\$15,652,480 48

Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same.....	\$712,833 71		
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions.....	20,999 52		
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium.....	58,730 87		
Paid surrendered Policies.....	190,691 40		
Paid Annuities.....	10,212 55		
Paid Taxes.....	38,076 52		
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses.....	174,310 94		
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums.....	334,255 12	1,540,130 63	

NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....	\$14,112,349 85
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Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank.....	\$1,475,899 82		
Bonds and Mortgages.....	7,348,622 30		
United States Stocks (Cost).....	4,468,921 25		
Real Estate.....	782,307 34		
Balance due by Agents.....	36,599 14	\$14,112,349 85	
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due.....	\$112,000 00		
Interest due and unpaid.....	5,084 73		
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received.....	655,844 30	772,929 03	

GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....	\$14,885,278 88
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INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR.....	\$2,312,935 17
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THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same.....	\$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due).....	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same.....	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for).....	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance.....	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over \$1,000,000).....	218,649 42

DIVIDEND OF 1866.....	\$2,975,388 58
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Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above.....	\$14,885,278 88
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N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions (\$11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of \$1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds \$1,300,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE.....	\$14,885,278 88
--------------------------	-----------------

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE

AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held. Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as cash in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON,
 JOHN V. L. PHUYN,
 WILLIAM MOORE,
 ROBERT H. MCCURDY,
 ISAAC GREEN PEARSON,
 WILLIAM BETTS,
 JOHN P. YELVERTON,
 SAMUEL M. CORNELL,
 LUCIUS ROBINSON,
 W. SMITH BROWN,
 ALFRED EDWARDS,
 JOHN WADSWORTH,
 EZRA WHEELER,
 SAMUEL D. BABCOCK,
 WILLIAM H. POPHAM,
 JOHN M. STUART,
 SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,
 RICHARD PATRICK,

HENRY A. SMYTHE,
 DAVID HOADLEY,
 WILLIAM V. BRADY,
 WILLIAM E. DODGE,
 GEORGE S. COE,
 WILLIAM K. STRONG,
 ALEX. W. BRADFORD,
 WILLIAM M. VERMILYE,
 JOHN E. DEVELIN,
 WILLIAM A. HAINES,
 SEYMOUR L. HUSTED,
 MARTIN BATES,
 WELLINGTON CLAPP,
 OLIVER H. PALMER,
 ALONZO CHILD,
 HENRY E. DAVIES,
 RICHARD A. MCCURDY,
 FRANCIS SKIDDY,

RICHARD A. MCCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, SECRETARIES.
 THEO. W. MORRIS,

SHEPPARD ROMANS, ACTUARY.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D.,
 Hon. LUCIUS ROBINSON, COUNSEL.
 Hon. ALEX. W. BRADFORD,

MINTURN POST, M.D., MEDICAL EXAMINERS.
 ISAAC L. KIP, M.D.,

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, DETROIT, MICH.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over	\$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES.

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force. Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

Active and efficient Agents wanted. Apply as above.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,
FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale
by all Dealers.

OAKLEY & MASON,

PUBLISHERS, BOOKSELLERS, STATIONERS'

AND BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

21 MURRAY STREET,

OLD STAND OF PRATT, OAKLEY & Co.,

Between Broadway and Church Street, New York.

ARCHER & PANCOAST,

Manufacturers of

GAS FIXTURES,

AND

COAL-OIL LAMPS, CHANDELIERS, Etc.,
OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

MANUFACTORY AND WAREHOUSES,

9, 11, and 13 Mercer Street, New York.

Special attention paid to the fitting up of hotels,
halls, and private residences, etc., etc.

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

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73 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS.

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every
kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple
Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders
solicited.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, perma-
nence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching,
when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report*
of American Institute.

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

595 BROADWAY, N. Y.

THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.
Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUST-
ING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. Four
distinct Stitches.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS,
HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale
and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if
purchased. Monthly payments received for the same.
Second-hand Pianos at bargain prices \$60, \$75, \$100,
\$125, \$150, \$175, \$200, and \$225. Factory and Warehouses,
481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PLYLE'S SALERATUS.

PLYLE'S O. K. SOAP.

PLYLE'S CREAM TARTAR.

PLYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full
weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package
bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865.....	\$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	\$3,684,804 86
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.....	257,260 54
	2,342,065 40
Total.....	\$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death.....	\$490,522 09
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,098 53
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95
Paid commissions and agency ex- penses	216,405 53
Paid for advertising and phys- ician's fees.....	31,542 41
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,303 80
	\$1,118,901 25
Total.....	\$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank.....	\$350,036 56
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, \$2,140,775) ..	2,115,431 25
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, \$54,- 475)	52,561 50
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, \$334,015)	333,923 15
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, \$55,558)	48,500 00
Real estate (market value, \$350,- 000)	140,819 74
Bonds and mortgages.....	250,747 02
Premium notes on existing poli- cies bearing interest.....	1,186,988 21
Quarterly and semi-annual pre- miums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 62
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866 ..	60,989 59
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	1,879 12
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of trans- mission.....	197,691 54
	\$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as fol-
lows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all par-
ticipating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were
issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed
the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863
and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the
first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home
office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the
return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring
\$16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1865.

Assets as above, at cost.....	\$4,881,919 70
(Market value, \$5,018,449 (95))	
Disposed of as follows:	
Reserved for losses, due subse- quent to Jan. 1, 1866.....	\$78,841 45
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs.....	26,000 00
Reserved for special deposits for minor children.....	285 36
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (calcu- lations at 4 per cent. interest) ..	3,520,297 05
Reserved for:	
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand.....	118,211 88
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid.....	322,505 00
Dividend, 1865 (present value).....	315,042 00
Dividend, 1866 (present value).....	406,117 00
Special reserve (not divided).....	184,238 95
	\$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.

CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D.,

GEORGE WILKES, M.D.,

CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

Medical Examiners.

Medical Examiners.

Medical Examiners.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have
been well known in the New York market for more than
thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually add-
ing improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities en-
able us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to
purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

Russell Sturgis, Jr.,

ARCHITECT,

98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,

ARCHITECTS,

110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,

LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

The undersigned have associated under the above title
for the business of furnishing advice on all matters of
location, and Design and Superintendence for Buildings
and Grounds and other Architectural and Engineering
Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages,
Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

SPRING CLOTHING!

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FOR

MEN AND BOYS.

Garments made to order.

GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,

Etc., Etc.,

AT

FREEMAN & BURR'S

One Price Clothing Warehouse,

124 Fulton and 95 Nassau Streets,

Opposite the Sun Building, New York.

We are now selling a large and complete stock of
Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from
10 to 48 per cent. below former prices.

DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their sing-
ing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic,
elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction,
which enables them to remain in tune much longer than
ordinary Pianos.

STEINWAY & SONS' GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT PIANO-FORTES

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver
Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within
the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were award-
ed a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibi-
tion in London, 1862, in competition with 309 Pianos from
all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now
universally conceded is abundantly proven by the fact
that Messrs. Steinway's scales, improvements, and
peculiarities of construction have been copied by the
great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres
(AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT
OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by
the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who
prefer them for their own public and private use, when-
ever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their

PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT,

which, having been practically tested in all their grand
and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one
of the greatest improvements of modern times, will here-
after be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY
THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in or-
der that all their patrons may reap its benefits.

STEINWAY & SONS' PIANOS are the only American
instruments exported to Europe in large numbers, and
used in European concert-rooms.

WAREHOUSES, 71 & 73 EAST FOURTEENTH ST.
between Union Square and Irving Place, New York.

